A Self–Consistent First–Principles Technique Having Linear Scaling

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Abstract

An algorithm for first–principles electronic structure calculations having a computational cost which scales linearly with the system size is presented. Our method exploits the real–space localization of the density matrix, and in this respect it is related to the technique of Li, Nunes and Vanderbilt. The density matrix is expressed in terms of localized *support* functions, and a matrix of variational parameters, $L_{\alpha\beta}$ having a finite spatial range. The total energy is minimized with respect to both the support functions and the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ parameters. The method is variational, and becomes exact as the ranges of the support functions and L matrix are increased. We have tested the method on crystalline silicon systems containing up to 216 atoms, and we discuss some of these results.

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I. INTRODUCTION

There has recently been rapidly growing activity in condensed matter simulation based on a quantum description of the electrons. The methods being used range from simple tight–binding models[1] to full *ab initio* techniques[2]. Conventional electronic structure methods face severe difficulties for large systems, because the number of computer operations generally increases as the third power of the number of electrons. The development of methods for which the number of operations increases only linearly with the number of electrons (linear scaling methods) is an important target of current research. We describe here a promising first–principles linear–scaling method, which we have tested on silicon systems, and we present some results of these tests.

The method we propose is closely related to several recently described techniques, particularly that of Li *et al.*[3]. The key idea of their method is that the electronic ground state should be determined by variation of the total energy with respect to the density matrix, linear–scaling being obtained by imposing a spatial cut–off on the density matrix. This approach is already becoming widely used in the tight–binding framework[4]. The method we describe is a generalization of the approach of Li *et al.* to first principles calculations. As we shall point out, the density–matrix approach is related to the technique of Mauri *et al.*[5,6], which also has been highly successful in dynamical tight–binding simulations. The parallel implementation of linear–scaling tight–binding methods has also been recently reported[8]. Other linear–scaling methods less relevant to the present work have also been described in refs.[9–13].

The basic principles of our method are outlined in sec. II, and its practical implementation is described in sec. III. The results of our tests are presented in sec. IV. Conclusions and suggestions for future developments are given in sec. V.

II. BASIC PRINCIPLES

The first–principles method we describe is based on density functional theory $(\text{DFT})^2$. Within DFT, the total energy E_{tot} can be regarded as a functional of the occupied Kohn–Sham orbitals $\psi_i(\underline{r})$, and the ground state can be obtained by minimizing the total energy with respect to these orbitals. Equivalently, the total energy can be treated as a functional of the density matrix $\rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}')$, defined as:

$$\rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}') = \sum_i \psi_i(\underline{r}) \, \psi_i^*(\underline{r}'), \tag{1}$$

where the sum goes over all occupied orbitals. The ground state can then be obtained by minimizing E_{tot} with respect to $\rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}')$, subject to the conditions that ρ is idempotent, $i.e.$:

$$\rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}') = \int d\underline{r}'' \, \rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}'') \, \rho(\underline{r}'', \underline{r}'), \tag{2}$$

and that the number of electrons N_{el} has the correct value, the latter being given by:

$$N_{el} = 2 \int d\underline{r} \, \rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}). \tag{3}$$

Whether one works in terms of $\psi_i(\underline{r})$ or in terms of $\rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}')$, the essence of the calculation is to determine the occupied subspace.

If one works with the density matrix, the idempotency condition is awkward to enforce directly, and it is more convenient to minimize subject to the condition that all its eigenvalues lie between 0 and 1. This corresponds exactly to the commonly used device of working with variable occupation numbers in DFT^{14}. This can be achieved following the strategy proposed by Li et $al.^3$, in which ρ is expressed as:

$$\rho = 3\,\sigma * \sigma - 2\,\sigma * \sigma * \sigma, \tag{4}$$

where $\sigma(\underline{r}, \underline{r}')$ is an auxiliary 2–point function. Here the asterisk represents the continuum analog of matrix multiplication, so that $e.g.$ the 2–point function $\sigma * \sigma(\underline{r}, \underline{r}')$ is given by:

$$\sigma * \sigma(\underline{r}, \underline{r}') \equiv \int d\underline{r}'' \sigma(\underline{r}, \underline{r}'').\sigma(\underline{r}'', \underline{r}'). \tag{5}$$

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The point here is that if λ is an eigenvalue of σ, then the corresponding eigenvalue of ρ is $f(\lambda) = 3\lambda^2 - 2\lambda^3$. This transformation guarantees that if σ is nearly idempotent, ρ will be idempotent to an even better approximation. The process of minimizing E_{tot} has the effect of driving the eigenvalues towards zero or unity, so that ρ is driven towards idempotency, as described in more detail by Li et $al.$[3].

For practical first–principles calculations, $\sigma(\underline{r}, \underline{r}')$ must be made separable, $i.e.$ expressed in the form:

$$\sigma(\underline{r}, \underline{r}') = \sum_{\alpha,\beta} \phi_\alpha(\underline{r}) \, L_{\alpha\beta} \, \phi_\beta(\underline{r}'), \tag{6}$$

where the $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ will be referred to as $support$ $functions$. It follows that $\rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}')$ is also separable:

$$\rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}') = \sum_{\alpha,\beta} \phi_\alpha(\underline{r}) \, K_{\alpha\beta} \, \phi_\beta(\underline{r}'), \tag{7}$$

with the matrix K given by:

$$K = 3 \, LSL - 2 \, LSLSL, \tag{8}$$

where $S_{\alpha\beta}$ is the overlap matrix:

$$S_{\alpha\beta} = \int d\underline{r} \, \phi_\alpha(\underline{r}) \, \phi_\beta(\underline{r}). \tag{9}$$

In order to turn this into a linear–scaling method, we now require firstly that the support functions $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ be non–zero only within localized spatial regions, referred to as $support$ $regions$, and secondly that the matrix elements $L_{\alpha\beta}$ be non–zero only if the corresponding regions are separated by less than a chosen cutoff distance R_{cut}. It is natural to impose these conditions, because in general $\rho(\underline{r}, \underline{r}')$ decays to zero as the separation $|\underline{r} - \underline{r}'|$ goes to infinity. This implies that the calculation will become exact as the cutoff distance and the size of the support regions are increased.

The strategy is now to minimize the total energy both with respect to the support functions and with respect to the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients, subject only to the condition that the

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number of electrons is held fixed at the required value. Since we are imposing constraints on the size of the support regions and the range of the L matrix, the calculation will be variational: the minimum energy is an upper bound to the true ground–state energy.

III. PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION

We have implemented the above general scheme in the local density approximation (LDA) using the pseudopotential technique[2]. The algorithm developed in the present work performs all calculations on a grid in real space. In this respect, our techniques have much in common with the real–space grid methods recently developed by Chelikowsky *et al.*[15] for DFT–pseudopotential calculations. We work with periodic boundary conditions in order to avoid surface effects, but the technique could easily be applied with other boundary conditions. At present, our calculations are restricted to cubic repeating cells, and each cell is covered by a uniform cubic grid of spacing δx.

The support regions are chosen to be spherical with radius R_{reg}, and are centered on the atoms. Each region is associated with a certain number ν of support functions, where ν is the same for all regions. It is important to note that the total number of support functions must be at least half the number of electrons, but can be greater, and we exploit this freedom in the calculations described later. Each support function $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ is represented by its values $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r}_\ell)$ on the grid points $\underline{r}_\ell$ in its region.

We now need to evaluate the various terms in the total energy, namely the kinetic energy E_K, the electron–pseudopotential E_{ps}, the Hartree energy E_H and the exchange and correlation energy E_{xc}. In an exact calculation E_K would be given by:

$$E_K = 2 \sum_{\alpha\beta} \int d\underline{r}\, \phi_\beta(\underline{r})\, K_{\alpha\beta} \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\,m} \nabla_r^2 \right) \phi_\alpha(\underline{r}). \qquad (10)$$

We approximate this by replacing the Laplacian by a finite–difference approximation and the integration by a sum over grid points. In the terminology of Chelikowsky *et al.*[15], we are currently using the second–order approximation, in which the calculation of $\nabla_r^2 \phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ at any

grid point involves two points on either side in each cartesian direction. It is a simple matter to go to higher approximations, and the computational cost of doing so is not significant. It is important to note that this scheme gives non–zero $\nabla_r^2 \phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ values at grid points on which $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ itself is zero, and it is essential to keep these values when calculating the matrix elements involved in E_K.

The energies E_{ps}, E_H and E_{xc} all depend on the electron density $n(\underline{r})$, whose value at grid point $\underline{r}_\ell$ is:

$$n(\underline{r}_\ell) = 2 \sum_{\alpha\beta} \phi_\alpha(\underline{r}_\ell) \, K_{\alpha\beta} \, \phi_\beta(\underline{r}_\ell). \tag{11}$$

The pseudopotential energy is evaluated by multiplying $n(\underline{r})$ by the total pseudopotential at each grid point and summing over the grid. (For present purposes, we are working with local pseudopotentials, although the extension to non–local pseudopotentials is straightforward.) The LDA exchange–correlation energy is evaluated similarly by summing the values $n(\underline{r}_\ell) \, \epsilon_{xc}[n(\underline{r}_\ell)]$, where $\epsilon_{xc}(n)$ is the exchange–correlation energy per electron at density n. The Hartree energy is evaluated in reciprocal space using the Fourier components of $n(\underline{r}_\ell)$ obtained by discrete fast Fourier transform.

The ground state is determined by minimization of the total energy with respect to both the support functions $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ and the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients, with the electron number held constant. We perform the minimization by the conjugate gradients method, and for this purpose we need analytical expressions for the derivatives $\partial E_{tot}/\partial \phi_\alpha(\underline{r}_\ell)$ and $\partial E_{tot}/\partial L_{\alpha\beta}$. These expressions are straightforward to derive, as will be described in more detail in a separate publication. The explicit formulas for these derivatives are:

$$\frac{\partial E_{tot}}{\partial \phi_\alpha(\underline{r}_\ell)} = 4 \sum_\beta [K_{\alpha\beta}(\hat{H} \, \phi_\beta)(\underline{r}_\ell) + 3 \, (LHL)_{\alpha\beta} \, \phi_\beta(\underline{r}_\ell) - \tag{12}$$
$$2 \, (LSLHL + LHLSL)_{\alpha\beta} \, \phi_\beta(\underline{r}_\ell)]$$

and

$$\frac{\partial E_{tot}}{\partial L_{\alpha\beta}} = 6 \, (SLH + HLS)_{\alpha\beta} - 4 \, (SLSLH + SLHLS + HLSLS)_{\alpha\beta}. \tag{13}$$

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Here, $(\hat{H}\,\phi_\beta)(\underline{r}_\ell)$ denotes the function obtained by acting with the Kohn–Sham Hamiltonian on $\phi_\beta(\underline{r})$, evaluated at grid point $\underline{r}_\ell$. In the matrix products $H_{\alpha\beta}$ is the matrix element of the Kohn–Sham Hamiltonian between support functions $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ and $\phi_\beta(\underline{r})$. We stress that these are exact formulas for the derivatives of the discrete grid expressions for E_{tot}. It is also worth noting that the formula for $\partial E_{tot}/\partial L_{\alpha\beta}$ is identical to what would be obtained in a tight–binding formulation with non–orthogonal basis functions.

The linear–scaling behaviour arises from the spatial localization of the support functions, which implies that the overlap and Hamiltonian matrices $S_{\alpha\beta}$ and $H_{\alpha\beta}$ vanish if the distance between the support functions exceeds a certain cutoff. With the cutoff we are imposing on $L_{\alpha\beta}$, this means that all matrices appearing in the expressions for E_{tot} and its derivatives are sparse, and the number of non–zero elements grows linearly with the number of atoms.

In practice, the minimization is currently performed by making a sequence of conjugate gradients steps for the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients, followed by a sequence of steps for the support functions, repeating the alternation between these two types of variation. Ultimately, more efficient procedures may prove possible.

In the tight–binding technique of Li et $al.$[3], the chemical potential rather than the number of electrons, N_{el}, was held constant. This is inconvenient, and we have preferred to hold N_{el} fixed during the minimization. To achieve this, we project the derivatives $\partial E_{tot}/\partial L_{\alpha\beta}$ so that the resulting search direction is tangential to the local surface of constant N_{el}, and after each displacement of $L_{\alpha\beta}$ we make a correction to regain the correct N_{el} value. In performing this constrained minimization, there is considerable freedom in the choice of object function, and we find that it is convenient to minimize $E_{tot} - \mu N_{el}$, where μ is set equal to an estimate for the chemical potential.

IV. PRACTICAL TESTS

The total ground–state energy calculated by the above scheme converges to the correct value as the radius R_{reg} of the support regions and the value of the spatial cutoff radius

R_{cut} for the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients are increased. Clearly, the practical usefulness of the method depends on the manner of this convergence. We must be able to obtain acceptable accuracy with manageable values for R_{reg} and R_{cut}. The size of the region and the value of the cutoff needed also determine the size of the system at which linear–scaling behaviour is obtained. To test these questions, we have performed calculations on repeating cells of perfect crystal silicon.

The electron–core interactions are represented by the simple model pseudopotential due to Appelbaum and Hamann[16]. This is a local pseudopotential which is known to give a satisfactory representation of the energetics and electronic structure of crystalline silicon. The exchange–correlation energy is given by the Ceperley–Alder formula[17]. We have performed tests on systems of different sizes, using a grid spacing of 0.34 Å. This is very similar to the spacing typically used in pseudopotential plane–wave calculations on silicon, and is sufficient to give reasonable accuracy[15]. In all cases, we have found that the conjugate gradient method converges in a stable and fairly rapid way to the ground state. Generally, 50 steps each of $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ variation and $L_{\alpha\beta}$ variation are more than enough to achieve convergence of E_{tot} to within 10^{-4} eV/atom.

To examine the dependence of E_{tot} on the region radius R_{reg}, we have done calculations on a system of 216 atoms. For this purpose, we have not imposed any cutoff on the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients, but instead have determined them by exact diagonalization of the Hamiltonian matrix after every fifth displacement of the support functions. This is equivalent to using an infinite cutoff for the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients. We stress that exact diagonalization is only used for the purpose of this test. It is clearly not a linear scaling operation, and in practical implementations is replaced by variation with respect to the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients. Our results for E_{tot} for five region sizes shown in Fig. V demonstrate that the convergence of E_{tot} is very rapid, and that an accuracy of 0.05 eV/atom is reached for a region radius of 2.55 Å. The conventional plane–wave method needs a plane–wave cutoff of ≈ 12 Ry to achieve the same accuracy with commonly used pseudopotentials for silicon. This implies that linear–scaling behaviour for those parts of the calculation involving the calculation of $S_{\alpha\beta}$ and $H_{\alpha\beta}$ matrix

elements is reached for systems of roughly 100 atoms.

The dependence of E_{tot} on the cutoff radius R_{cut} for the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients has been studied for a system of 216 ions. Since we have shown that a region radius of 2.21 Å provides good accuracy, we have used this length to perform this test. Here we have used conjugate gradient minimization with respect to both $\phi_\alpha(\underline{r})$ and $L_{\alpha\beta}$. The convergence of E_{tot} with increasing R_{cut} in the L matrix is illustrated in Fig. V, where it can be seen that this convergence is fairly rapid. The error in the total energy is less than 1% with $R_{cut} = 6$ Å. It is worth noticing that we do not need longer cut–offs in the L matrix than are needed in the orthogonal tight–binding case[3] to obtain a similar degree of convergence in the total energy with a given support region radius.

V. DISCUSSION

We have shown that our proposed first–principles linear–scaling method is promising. The tests on c–Si show that the total energy converges rapidly as the size of the support regions and the cutoff radius are increased. For the time consuming parts of the calculation involving the computation of overlap and Hamiltonian matrix elements, the linear–scaling regime appears to be reached with only 100 atoms. Linear scaling is reached for the parts involving products of these sparse matrices requires larger systems, but these operations are essentially the same as would be needed in a tight–binding calculation.

It should be noted that there are still problems that need to be addressed before a fully operational simulation code is written. One such problem concerns the calculation of the Hellmann–Feynman forces, and the possible need for Pulay corrections[18]. We do not believe that this problem is particularly severe, and we hope to address it in a later publication. We also note that a considerable effort will be needed on code optimization before conclusions can be drawn about the speed of the method in practical problems.

Finally we return to the relation between our method and previous linear–scaling schemes. Our reliance on the density matrix techniques proposed by Li *et al.*[3] has already

been stressed. The close relation between these techniques and the approach of Mauri *et al.* for tight–binding calculations has been pointed out by Nunes and Vanderbilt[19]. However, an important difference is that in our scheme there is considerable flexibility in choosing the number of support functions ν, whereas in the scheme of Mauri *et al.* it appears to be necessary to take this number equal to half the number of electrons. We believe that the flexibility in our scheme may be an advantage, because we expect that increasing the number of support functions will allow one to reduce the size of the support region, and therefore the length of the cutoff for $L_{\alpha\beta}$ coefficients.

The method we propose appears to be well suited to parallel computation, and we are currently investigating possible parallel implementations.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Variation of the total energy with the region radius R_{reg}.

Variation of the total energy with the $L_{\alpha\beta}$ matrix range, R_{cut}. The quantity plotted is the error in the total energy per atom with respect to the value obtained with infinite R_{cut}.